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1. Bau et al, NAR 22:2811-2816 (1994)

- 2. Dean et al., NAR 14:2229-2240 (1986)
- 3. Malter et al, Science 246:664-666 (1989)
- 4. Shaw et al., Cell 46:659-667 (1986)
- (5. van Aarsen et al., Plant mol. biol. 28:513-524 (1995)
- 6. Wilson et al., Nature336:396-399 (1998).

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# cry IA(b) transcript formation in tobacco is inefficient

Roel van Aarssen, Piet Soetaert, Maike Stam<sup>1</sup>, Jan Dockx<sup>2</sup>, Veronique Gosselé, Jef Seurinck, Arlette Reynaerts and Marc Cornelissen\*

Plant Genetic Systems NV, J. Plateaustraat 22, B9000 Gent, Belgium (\* author for correspondence);

1 present address: Dept. of Genetics, Free University, De Boelelaan 1087, Amsterdam 1081 HV, Netherlands;

2 present address: Dept. of Molecular and Cellular Biology, Utrecht University, Padualaan 8, Utrecht

3584 CH, Netherlands

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## **Abstract**

Chimaeric P<sub>CaMV35S</sub>cry genes direct in tobacco mesophyll protoplasts mRNA levels of less than one transcript per cell. We provide evidence that this low cytoplasmic cry IA(b) mRNA level is not due to a rapid turnover but rather results from a marginal import flow of cry messenger into the cytoplasm. Run-on assays indicate that the frequency of transcription initiation is not limiting. However, the cry precursor mRNA carries at least three regions that are recognized as introns. The absence of high cytoplasmic levels of spliced cry mRNAs suggests that these mRNAs are unstable and/or not efficiently made. Point mutations in the 5' splice site of the most distal intron allows high accumulation levels of the full-length mRNA. This implies that the inefficient formation of full-size mRNA is a major cause of the low expression level of chimaeric cry IA(b) genes in tobacco.

# Introduction

The regulatory features of DNA and RNA sequences are mostly context dependent. Local context changes thus can affect gene regulation in a significant and yet unpredictable manner. In this way, transgenes may follow unexpected expression pathways, both because of cryptic regulatory signals and because of changes in the genetic background.

A well documented case of this sort is the expression of insecticidal crystal protein (cry) genes in plants. Cry genes are naturally present in Bacillus thuringiensis and encode proteins which are lethal to specific insect species upon ingestion [20]. Plants expressing the appropriate cry gene

become significantly less damaged by specific insect infestations than plants lacking the gene. Transgenic tobacco, tomato, potato and cotton carrying a number of different cry genes specified without exception barely detectable levels of insecticidal crystal protein (ICP) [34, 41, 42]. Typically, chimaeric cry plant genes direct about 1000fold lower levels of protein than chimaeric bar (bialophos resistance), nptII (neomycin phosphotransferase), cat (chloramphenicol acetyltransferase), or gus (glucuronidase) genes even though being flanked by the same plant regulatory expression signals [7, and unpublished]. RNA analyses [42] and protein turnover studies (Cornelissen and Vandewiele, unpublished) revealed that the minimal ICP accumulation is primarily due to low cytoplasmic cry IA (b) mRNA steady state levels. Introduction of a large number of translationally neutral mutations in the cry IA(b)-coding region resulted in a significant increase of the mRNA and protein level [35]. However, the underlying mechanism restricting cry expression is still not understood.

In the present study we have focused on the question of which events negatively control cry IA(b) expression in tobacco. We have determined the turnover rate of the cry messenger and provide evidence that the level of cytoplasmic import rather than mRNA instability is responsible for the inefficient cytoplasmic accumulation of cry mRNA. Run-on analysis suggests that the promoter functions normally. RT-PCR analyses of cry transcripts revealed the occurrence of three splicing events. Mutation of the 5' splice sites showed that cryptic splicing of the cry messenger contributes significantly to the low cry transcript flow to the cytoplasm.

### Materials and methods

#### DNA constructions

The in vitro transcription vectors used to produce bar and bt884 RNA were derived from a modified pFM108 [10] which is a pGEM (Promega) derivative containing a cloning site at the T7 transcription start site, the pGEM1 polylinker and a  $(A)_{33}G(A)_{32}G(A)_{32}$  sequence followed by respectively a Kpn I (bt884) or Hind III (bar) site (pMS vector, Maike Stam, thesis, Free University of Amsterdam, Amsterdam, 1991). The bar-coding region was introduced into the Nco I and Bgl II sites of pMS yielding pXD324. The bt884 sequence was introduced into the pMS vector by introduction of the 1840 bp Bam HI (filled) – Pst I (trimmed) cry IA(b) fragment into the Nco I (filled)-Eco RI (filled) sites of pMS resulting in pMS-IA(b). The presence of the poly(AT) track and the flanking regions were sequence-analysed [30]. The poly(AT) track in pMS-IA(b) had changed into  $(A)_{33}G(A)_{32}G(A)_{21}$ .

The chimaeric P<sub>TR2</sub>·IA(b)-6 3'g7 gene is a de-

rivative of the P<sub>TR2</sub>. bt884 3'g7 gene and contains a consensus translation start context [23], a 5' truncation of the coding region from codons 2 to 28, as well as a modified 321 bp Xba I-Eco RI fragment (nucleotides 674 to 1000) relative to the AUG of the bt884-coding region (Fig. 5a). The IA(b)-14 gene is a derivative of IA(b)-6 in which the 5' splice site of intron 2 is modified from 5'-CGG' gtaaga into CGTGTCCGA by PCR methodology [22]. The IA(b)-16 gene is a derivative of IA(b)-14 in which the 5' splice site of intron 1 is modified from 5'AGT'gtaagt into TCT-GTTTCG by overlap extension PCR [22]. The presence of the modifications in the selected IA(b)-14 and -16 clones was confirmed by sequence analysis [36]. For transient expression analyses the chimaeric IA(b)-6, -14 and -16 genes were introduced into a pUC19 [43] derivative upstream of chimaeric P<sub>35S</sub>cat 3'ocs gene in a head-to-tail configuration, resulting in respectively plasmids pPS0212, pRVA0208 and pRVA0210. For stable introduction into tobacco the chimaeric IA(b)-6 gene was exchanged with the chimaeric bt884 gene present in the T-DNA vector pGSH163 [42] resulting in pPS0216.

## Tobacco transformation

The T-DNAs of plasmids pGSH163 and pPS0216 containing respectively the bt884 and IA(b)-6 gene were introduced into Nicotiana tabacum cv. Petit Havanna SR1 [28] via Agrobacterium-mediated T-DNA transfer as described by Vaeck et al. [42].

Determination of RNA turnover and transcript analyses

pMSIA(b) and pXD324 were linearized at the unique *Kpn* I or *Hind* III site downstream the poly(AT) track. Synthetic capped RNA was produced according to Promega protocols. The use of the linearization sites *Kpn* I and *Hind* III resulted in the production of transcripts with 2 and 3 nucleotides respectively downstream of the

poly(A) tail. A limited number of nucleotides downstream of the poly(A) tail appears not to interfere with the stability of transcripts [14]. Free nucleotides were removed by two ethanol precipitations in the presence of 2 M ammonium acetate. RNA was delivered in mesophyll protoplasts of N. tabacum cv. Petit Havanna SR1 [28] essentially as described by Gallie et al. [14] using the buffer systems as in Denecke et al. [11]. 9 pmol of synthetic capped and polyadenylated cry and bar transcript were mixed and added to 106 protoplasts in 0.3 ml of electroporation buffer. After electrical discharge and a 10 min incubation at room temperature, the cells were pooled and washed in 10 volumes of buffer (0.2 M mannitol, 128 mM NaCl, 4 mM CaCl $_2$ , 0.15 mM KH $_2$ PO $_4$ , 0.81 mM Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, pH 7.2, resuspended in culture medium and incubated at 24 °C in the dark until harvesting. Time point samples contained  $3 \times 10^6$  protoplasts.

Total RNA was extracted from tobacco protoplasts as described by Cornelissen and Vandewiele [8]. Equal amounts  $(1-10 \mu g)$  of different samples were run on a denaturing gel. To quantify the cry, bar and nptII mRNA levels in the total RNA preparations, a dilution series ranging from 1-500 pg of synthetic cry, bar and nptII transcript were run on the same gel. To each dilution, an identical quantity of total SR1 RNA was added as was present in the time point samples. Filters and hybridizations were done according to Amersham protocols. Probes were made by in vitro transcription of pGEM clones that carried the cry, bar and nptII coding sequences. Hybridisation signals were quantified by scintillation counting and densitometric scanning using a LKB Ultrascan 2202. Data were processed using GraphPAD Inplot (3.0) software.

cDNA reactions to determine cry IA(b) RNA processing sites were carried out according to Kawasaki [24] on 2 µg of total RNA extracted from N28-220 [42] leaf protoplasts using an oligo d(T) primer of 16 nt. The first strand was used to amplify specific DNA fragments employing the Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) as described by Kawasaki [24] using the following sets of

primers: set A: OPS64 (5'-ATC CGG TCC CCA TAC ACG CTC TAA TCC CG) and OPS66 (5'-CCA AAT CGA TGG ATC CCG ATA ACA ATC CG), set B: OPS63 (5'-TTG GAC AAA GGT GGG GAT TTG ATG CCG GG) and OPS65 (5'-ATG GCT TAA TCG ATG ACT AAA TCC TTG CC), set C: OPS58 (5'-GTG CCA CCT AGG CAA GGA TTT AGT CAT CG) and OPS59 (5'-TAG CTC ATC GGG GGA TCT GCT AGA GCC CG), and set D: OPS61 (5'-ACA TTG CCG TAG ATG AAA GACTGA GTG CG) and OPS62 (5' CCC CAA TCG ATA TTT CCT TGT CGC TAA CG). The amplified DNA products were separated on agarose gel, purified and sequenced according to Maxam and Gilbert [30] or Sanger et al. [36]. Agarose gel separation of PCR samples resulted in more PCR species than polyacrylamide gel separation. Purification and sequence analysis of both strands of the additional PCR species showed that they originated from heteroduplex formation [12, 46]. cDNA synthesis and PCR to evaluate the splice site modifications were performed using the 3'-AmpliFINDER RACE Kit protocol (Clontech Laboratories). Primer OPS60 (5'-ACG GTA GAT TCG CTG GAT GAA ATA CCG CC) was used in the primary PCR, primers OPS58 and OPS59 were utilised in the secondary PCR. The PCR products were analysed on polyacrylamide gel.

# Nuclear run-on assays

Preparation of transcriptionally active nuclei and run-on assays were done essentially as described by Cox and Goldberg [9]. Assays were performed for 20 min. The radioactively labelled RNA was extracted according to Celano *et al.* [5]. The Southern (Hybond N of Amersham) shown in Fig. 2 contained 0.2 pmol of the denatured DNA fragments. Negative control DNAs were included. Hybridizations were carried out at 42 °C in 50% formamide, 5× SSPE and 0.5% SDS essentially as described in Amersham protocols. The autoradiographs were scanned with a LKB Ultrascan 2202 and normalized as described in the legend to Fig. 2.

## DNA delivery into tobacco protoplasts

DNA was delivered into SR1 mesophyll protoplasts as described by Denecke et al. [11]. Samples for RNA analysis were taken four hours after DNA delivery. Samples were processed as described for the RNA turnover studies. Equal amounts of each sample were run in duplicate on denaturing formaldehyde gels and blotted. Dilution series of synthetic cry and cat RNA were present on the same northern blot to quantify the respective mRNA levels. The probes were made by in vitro transcription of pGEM derivatives carrying the bt884- and cat-coding sequences. Transcript levels were quantified by densitometric scanning (LKB Ultrascan 2202) and scintillation counting of the hybridization signals.

### Results

cry messengers are stable transcripts in tobacco

Transgenic tobacco plant N28-220 [42] which carries several copies of the cry IA(b) derived P<sub>TR2'</sub>-bt884-3'g7 gene, specifies in its leaves less than one bt884 transcript per cell. N28-220 is amongst the lines that express the highest level of ICP. Its cry transcript level is over 200-fold below that of the bar transcript in tobacco SR1(T-GSFR166) [7], which carries the bar coding sequence flanked by the same regulatory sequences as the cry gene. Similar observations were made with transgenic tobacco expressing chimaeric cry IB [3], cry IC [21] and cry IE [2] genes (data not shown).

In a first instance, we wished to understand to what extent nuclear and/or cytoplasmic events determine the unusually low cytoplasmic bt884 mRNA level. This distinction can be made on the basis of the half-life and steady-state level of the cry transcript as cytoplasmic mRNA levels are a function of import and turnover. At equilibrium the cytoplasmic steady-state level equals the import rate divided by the decay constant.

The steady-state bt884 transcript level in leaf protoplasts of N28-220 is too low to determine

the turnover rate by pulse-chase analyses [26]. We therefore determined the turnover of the cry transcript in two independent ways. First, the invivo stability of in vitro synthesized bt884 transcript was determined [13, 14, 15]. A T7 template was constructed to synthesize transcripts with a 5' cap and a 3' poly(A) track carrying the coding sequences of bt884 and bar. At different time points after delivery samples were taken and analysed for both the cry and bar transcript abundances. As shown in Fig. 1A and 1B the cry transcript decays at a rate similar to that of the bar transcript. Using GraphPad Prism (1.02) software a decay constant of 0.088 + 0.038/h and  $0.14 \pm 0.026/h$  was calculated for the cry and bar transcripts respectively. The biologicial significance of these values is illustrated by the similar decay rates of synthetic bar mRNA and an analogous gene-encoded bar mRNA. This latter decay rate was obtained after transcription inhibition of a stably integrated transgene [7] (decay constant 0.3/h). As a second approach to determine the cry transcript stability we incubated mesophyll protoplasts of N28-220 with actinomycin D (150  $\mu$ g/ ml) and quantitated the amount of bt884 mRNA at regular time intervals over a period of 6 h (not shown). This experiment showed a decay constant of  $0.13 \pm 0.034/h$  for the bt884 mRNA.

These results show that the cry IA(b)-coding sequence itself is not subject to any specific decay process upon entry in the cytoplasm. Therefore, in plants like N28-220, bt884 messenger could accumulate in principle as efficiently as the bar messenger in SR1(T-GSFR166). As such accumulation does not take place, it implies that cry mRNA enters the cytoplasm at very low rates. Based on a steady state level of about one transcript per cell, the nucleo-cytoplasmic flow rate of bt884 mRNA should be less than 1 transcript per 10 h (import rate = steady state × decay constant). This clearly points towards the occurrence of one or more nuclear events that impair cry expression.

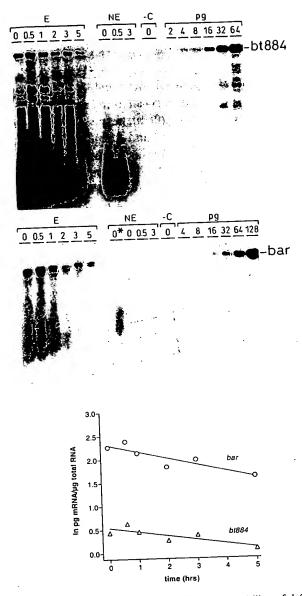


Fig. 1. Determination of the cytoplasmic stability of bt884 transcript in tobacco mesophyll protoplasts. A (top) E = Electroporated protoplasts. In vitro transcribed, capped and polyadenylated bt884 and bar transcripts were introduced into SR1 protoplasts and total RNA was extracted at the time points indicated (h). Time point 0 is 40 min after delivery. Transcript levels were quantified with the aid of calibration curves obtained with dilution series of cry and bar transcripts present on the northern blots as described in Materials and methods. The same cry and bar RNA prepararions were used for the delivery and dilution series. Degradation products visible in the lower part of the (E) and (NE) samples result from protoplast-encoded RNAse activities. The introduced quantity of bar mRNA (60 pg/ $\mu$ g total RNA) is similar to that accumulating in protoplasts containing a stably introduced

The bt884-coding region does not interfere with transcription initiation

It has been shown that sequences downstream of the transcription start site can be involved in control of transcription initiation [27]. We, therefore, investigated whether the cry-coding sequence interferes with the activity of the TR2' promoter. If this were the case, the number of RNA polymerase II complexes actively transcribing the bt884-coding region would be relatively low. In order to have a reference, we compared the transcriptional activity on the nptII- and bt884-coding region in N28-220. The nptII and bt884 genes are under the transcriptional control of respectively the TR1' and TR2' promoter and the nptII and bt884 transcript levels differ over 50-fold (Fig. 4b). We prepared nuclei of N28-220 mesophyll protoplasts and performed a nuclear run-on assay in the presence of radioactively labelled ribonucleotides. After the extension reaction, the labelled RNA was extracted and allowed to hybridize with a Southern blot that contained a molar excess of denatured DNA fragments covering both the nptII- and bt884-coding region (Fig. 2). Quantitation of the amount of radioactively labelled RNA hybridizing with the nptII and bt884 DNA fragments revealed that the transcriptional activity directly downstream of the promoter region is approximately the same for both genes. This result strongly suggests that the main nuclear mechanism by which the bt884-coding region interferes with cry expression is not a down regulation of the number of transcription initiations but rather a more downstream event.

bar transgene [7]. NE = not electroporated protoplasts: intact extracellular RNA was undetectable within 1 h after RNA addition, in protoplast samples that were mixed with cry and bar transcripts and that were not subjected to an electrical discharge. C = protoplasts electroporated in the absence of RNA. In all lanes 2.5  $\mu$ g of total RNA was loaded apart for the lane (NE)-0\* to which 5  $\mu$ g was applied. B (bottom). The calculated half-lives for bi884 and bar mRNA are 7.8  $\pm$  3 and 4.9  $\pm$  1.3 h respectively.

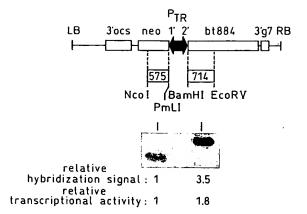


Fig. 2. Comparison of the transcriptional activity of neo and bt884 genes near the transcription start site in nuclei of N28-220. The RNA extension reaction was performed in the presence of 32P-UTP for 20 min at 30 °C. Radioactively labelled RNA extracted from nuclei was hybridised with a molar excess of denatured neo and bt884 DNA which was immobilized on a nylon membrane. The positions and sizes of the DNA regions on the T-DNA are indicated. LB and RB refer to the left and right T-DNA borders, respectively. The 3' end formation and polyadenylation region of the g7 and ocs genes [42] are indicated. The relative abundance of hybridising neo and bt884 transcripts was measured both by scintillation counting and densitometric scanning of autoradiographs with different exposure times. The relative transcriptional activity was determined by correcting the values for the UTP contents of the hybridizing RNA.

The cry-coding region carries cryptic RNA processing sites

In a next set of experiments we looked for unexpected processing events of the cry precursor mRNA which could interfere with export to the cytoplasm. To this end, the molecular structure of polyadenylated cry transcripts present in mesophyll protoplasts of N28-220 was studied. This mRNA pool should include the cytoplasmic cry mRNAs as well as the nuclear cry transcripts that have just undergone 3' end formation. Total RNA of N28-220 protoplasts was extracted and cDNA was made using an oligo-d(T) primer. This cDNA was used in PCR reactions to amplify overlapping regions of the cry transcript to verify their integrity (Fig. 3a). Primers amplifying the region -8 to 672, and 539 to 1302 relative to the translation start site, yielded PCR products of the ex-

pected size only. Instead, amplification of the region 1264 to 1909 yielded in addition to the expected 645 bp product, smaller sized products of 437 and 298 bp, respectively (Fig. 3A). Sequence analysis showed that the 437 and 298 bp amplification products resulted from deletions of 208 nt, and 139 plus 208 nt, respectively, in the bt884 transcript. The 5' and 3' internal and external borders of the missing regions are in both cases in agreement with RNA consensus splice sites (Fig. 3B). This finding indicates that a fraction of the cry precursor mRNA pool is spliced in a cryptic fashion. The 139 and 208 nt introns were named intron 1 and 2, respectively. In a next step, the cry transcript was screened for the occurrence of additional introns by amplifying it with oligos that prime at nt 107 and 1978. To increase the sensitivity, the PCR reaction mixture was blotted after gel separation and hybridised with a radioactively labelled *cry* probe. This revealed the amplification of a 0.6 and 0.7 kb product when separated on agarose gel (Fig. 3C). After purification of the individual bands followed by nested PCR. both bands gave rise to a single 0.7 kb product. The 0.6 kb product probably resulted from an imperfect duplex formation (see Materials and methods) [12, 46]. Sequence analysis revealed that the 0.7 kb PCR product had a size of 735 bp and contained a deletion of 929 and of 208 nt relative to the bt884 sequence. The latter deletion corresponded with intron 2, whereas the 929 nt deletion uncovered the presence of a third cryptic intron. Interestingly, this intron uses the same 3' splice site as intron 1. Taken together, these data show that the cry-coding region carries at least three cryptic introns (Fig. 3D).

Modification of the region 700–1000 and splice sites enhances cry IA(b) expression

A 5' and 3' deletion analysis of the bt860 gene [42] using transiently transformed tobacco leaf protoplasts, revealed that the sequence between nucleotides 785 to 1285 interferes with cry mRNA accumulation (data not shown). To investigate whether this region is important for the low

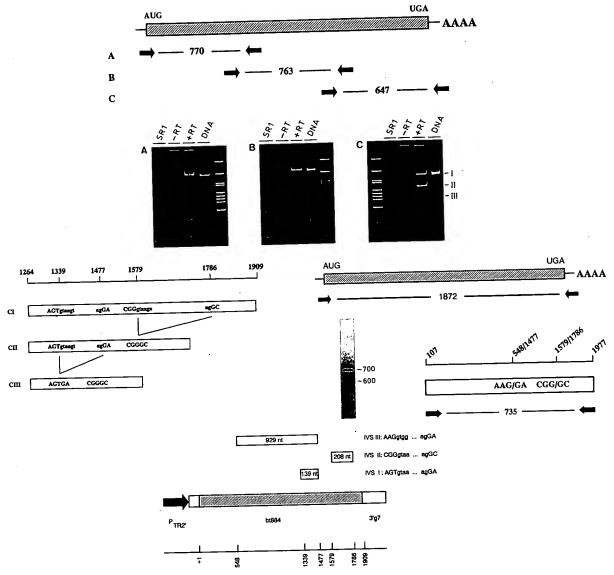
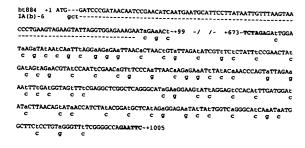


Fig. 3. Identification of cryptic RNA processing sites in the bt884-coding region. A (top). Search for splicing events in the 5', central and 3' region of the bt884 transcript using RT-PCR. The primer sets used to amplify the regions A, B and C are indicated. Samples were separated on 8% polyacrylamide gel. SR1, RNA of untransformed SR1; -/+ RT, without or with reverse transcriptase; DNA, plasmid DNA positive PCR control. Size marker: pSTNV Hinf I. B (middle left). Sequence of the PCR products CI, CII and CIII. Sequences absent in the CII and CIII PCR products are written in lower-case letters. The nucleotide numbering is relative to the translation start site. C (middle right). RT-PCR of the entire bt884-coding region. The location of the primers is indicated. After separation on agarose gel the PCR products were visualized by Southern blotting using bt884 DNA as a probe. Nucleotide numbering is relative to the AUG. D (bottom). Schematic overview of the three cryptic introns in the bt884-coding region. The 5' and 3' splice sites of the three introns are shown. IVS, intervening sequence.

nucleo-cytoplasmic cry mRNA flow, the expression of a bt884-derived gene modified at this position was studied. The region was altered by 63 translationally neutral substitutions between

nucleotides 680 and 991 (Fig. 4A). The modified region was introduced into the *bt884* gene, yielding IA(b)-5. In addition it was introduced into the *bt884* derivative IA(b)-4, that carries a consensus



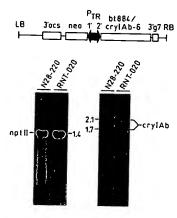


Fig. 4. Modification of the region 700-1000 results in improved cry expression. A (top). The configuration of the T-DNAs used to compare IA(b)-6 and bt884 expression are schematically presented. Nucleotides differences between the bt884 and IA(b)-6 coding regions are shown. Dotted line refers to nucleotides absent in either gene. Nucleotides written in bold refer to the restrictions sites used to introduce the modified pause site region. B (bottom). Comparison of the transcript levels directed by IA(b)-6 and bt884 genes in mesophyll protoplasts prepared from stably transformed SR1 tobacco. The IA(b)-6 gene in RNT-020 directed ca. 5 pg/ $\mu$ g total RNA whereas the bt884 gene in N28-220 directed less than 0.1 pg/ $\mu$ g total RNA. Abundances were determined using a dilution series of cold IA(b) and neo transcript. In RNT-020 a hybridizing RNA species of 1700 nucleotides accumulated in addition to the expected 2100 nt transcript. The 1700 nt RNA does not result from cryptic splicing (manuscript in preparation).

translation start context [23] and lacks the N-terminal 28 codons which are not necessary for insecticidal activity [20], thus yielding the IA(b)-6 gene. The resulting IA(b)-4, -5 and -6 genes were stably introduced into tobacco by T-DNA transfer and the IA(b) transcript levels were compared to that in N28-220. Interestingly, the IA(b)-4 and -5 genes typically directed a 10- to 20-fold higher IA(b) mRNA level than the *bt884* gene in N28-

220 (data not shown). Figure 4B shows the mRNA level encoded by the IA(b)-6 gene in RNT-020 which is over 50-fold higher than that encoded by the bt884 gene in N28-220. This suggests that the combination of the modifications as present in IA(b)-6 negatively cooperate with each other [18]. Transcript stability assays showed that the cytoplasmic stability of the IA(b)-6 transcript is similar to that of bt884 (data not shown) which implies that the modifications in IA(b)-6 increase expression by enhancing the nucleocytoplasmic mRNA flow.

To determine whether cryptic splicing contributed to the low nucleo-cytoplasmic flow of fullsize bt884 mRNA the expression of IA(b)-6 genes with modified 5' splice sites was studied. The 5' splice sites of the introns 1 and 2 were modified by translationally neutral nucleotide changes and introduced into the IA(b)-6 gene. The expression of the modified genes was tested in transiently transformed tobacco leaf protoplasts and revealed that genes carrying a modification of the 5' splice site of intron 2 either alone or in combination with the modified intron 15' splice site, had a significant effect on transcript accumulation (Fig. 5A). The relative increase in expression was several-fold and depending on the experiment varied between 4- and 20-fold. An RT-PCR analysis of the transcripts revealed that the splice site modifications indeed abolished splicing (Fig. 5B). Taken together, this implies that cryptic splicing of the cry transcript has a significant negative effect on expression of the bt884 gene.

### Discussion

The cytoplasmic transcript level specified by chimaeric *cry* plant genes in a number of different plant species ranges without exception between undetectable and a few transcripts per cell. As the transgenes are flanked by regulatory signals which in combination with other coding sequences usually support efficient mRNA accumulation, it is believed that the *cry*-coding region somehow, in a cryptic fashion, negatively controls its expression in plants.

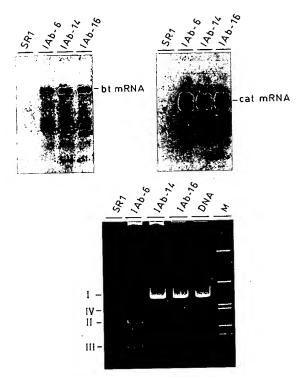


Fig. 5. Modification of the 5' splice site of intron 2 improves cry expression. The 5' splice sites of intron 1 and 2 were changed by translationally neutral substitutions (see Materials and methods). The modified 5' splice sites were introduced into IA(b)-6 yielding IA(b)-14 that contains the modified 5' splice site of intron 2, and IA(b)-16 that contains the modified 5' splice sites of intron 1 and 2. A (top). RNA levels encoded by chimaeric IA(b)-6, -14 and -16 genes were compared in transiently transformed tobacco SR1 leaf protoplasts four hours after DNA delivery. The IA(b) genes were codelivered with a chimaeric cat reporter gene present on the same plasmid. Northerns contained a dilution series of in vitro transcribed cry IAb and cat RNA to quantify mRNA levels (not shown). B (bottom). RT-PCR of the RNA encoded by IA(b)-6, -14 and -16 genes shown in A. PCR products were separated on a 8% polyacrylamide gel. Product I is obtained with all genes and corresponds to full-size mRNA. Products II and III are obtained only with IA(b)-6 mRNA and correspond to removal of intron 2 and intron 1 and 2 respectively (see also Figs. 3A and 3B. Product IV is obtained exclusively with RNA encoded by IA(b)-14 and represents RNA from which intron 1 has been removed. SR1, RNA of untransformed SR1; DNA, plasmid DNA positive PCR control; M, pSTNV Hinf I size marker.

We studied several aspects of the *cry* IA(b) expression pathway to unmask the regulatory features of the coding region. In a first instance, we wished to determine in which cellular compart-

ment expression is impaired. To this end, we determined the transcript level of the bt884 gene in transgenic tobacco and its turnover in transiently and stably transformed tobacco. Integration of the data revealed that the bt884 transcript is relatively stable and that the extremely low cytoplasmic bt884 transcript level is primarily due to a restricted transcript flow to the cytoplasm. A similar observation was made for the cry IB, cry IC and cry IE genes (data not shown). This implies that the cry I-coding regions interfere with their own expression somewhere between the process of transcription initiation and nuclear export of the mature transcript. However, as the different cry-coding regions share only a moderate homology at the nucleotide level, the actual interfering mechanism may differ for each of them.

The relatively high stability of the cry I transcripts was somehow unexpected since the cry I coding regions display several features which may cause cytoplasmic mRNA instability. First, the AU/GC ratio deviates significantly from values found for plant coding regions and well expressed reporter genes as nptII, bar, gus and cat. A plant coding region typically has an AU content of about 40 to 50%, whereas the cry I-coding regions have an AU content of 60 to 64%, exceeding in some regions 70%. Regions carrying AU stretches have been implicated in the rapid turnover of some mRNA species in mammals [39, 44]. Furthermore, AU motifs which have been associated with specific mRNA decay pathways in mammals [1, 25, 29], appear at several positions in the coding sequence. Secondly, the codon usage of the cry-coding sequence is very unlike the preferred plant codon usage [31]. At several sites series of unfavourable codons are clustered, which might interfere with efficient translation elongation [45] and thus render the mRNA unstable because of an increased exposure of internal regions of the transcript to cytoplasmic RNase activities [17, 19, 33, 35, 38]. In conclusion, the stability of the cry transcripts exemplifies that AU-rich mRNA turnover signals are recognized differently within the cell [37] and that codon usage may have differential effects on mRNA stability.

Replacement of aberrant cry codons by preferred codons and an increase in the GC contents of the cry IA (b) coding sequence resulted in a five fold increase in the transcript level and a 10-fold increase of protein synthesis per mRNA [35]. These data show that codon usage and/or GC content indeed affect CRY protein synthesis in plants. The increase in mRNA level is not necessarily linked to an improved translation efficiency and/or mRNA stability, but could be due to improved nuclear processing and/or transport [40]. Noteworthy is the observation [35] that a directed modification about 250 nucleotides downstream of the start of translation significantly improves expression. This in fact confirms that the inhibitory mechanism is more complex than just inefficient translation due to an overall unfavourable codon usage.

As our data clearly indicated that *cry* expression is negatively controlled at the nuclear level, we tested whether the promoter of the chimaeric *bt884* transgene in tobacco was still active. The nuclear run-on analysis strongly indicates that the *bt884*-coding region does not significantly interfere with the frequency of transcription initiation, indicating that other processes were involved.

Studying the nuclear processing of the bt884 precursor mRNA, we identified three functional introns in the bt884 transcript. This was surprising because spliced bt884 mRNAs do not accumulate to high levels in the cytoplasm. The only plausible explanation for this observation is that the spliced transcripts are inefficiently made and/or cytoplasmically unstable. Chimaeric IA(b) genes in which the 5' splice site of intron 2 was mutagenised, directed significantly higher levels of full-length mRNA in transiently transformed tobacco mesophyll protoplasts. This implies that a large fraction of the bt884 precursor mRNA enters into the splicing pathway and that cryptic splicing of the b1884 mRNA either directly or indirectly interferes with transcript accumulation. We are currently investigating whether cryptic splicing causes an increased nuclear RNA turnover and/or affects cytoplasmic mRNA stability [4, 16], for instance by causing translational frameshifts. Furthermore, we are looking at the

expression pathway of other *cry* genes to understand whether entry in the splicing pathway is a common event that interferes with *cry* gene expression in plants.

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